SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND THE HUMAN POTENTIAL GROUP PROCESS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

An abstract of a Doctoral Dissertation by
Barbara Hagans Durschmidt
May 1977
Drake University
Advisor: Dr. Stuart Tiedeman

The problem under investigation was to determine whether individuals moved significantly toward self-actualization after attending Human Potential Seminars at a community college.

Pretests and posttests were collected for 38 experimental subjects and 63 control subjects from Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory. All subjects were students enrolled at Iowa Central Community College during the fall term, 1974-75. Experimental groups consisted of four Human Potential Seminars, and controls were members of three separate English classes.

A nonrandomized control group design was utilized. Analysis of covariance was used to compensate for the possibility of nonequivalence on the pretest between the experimental and control groups. A series of univariate tests were applied to test the hypothesis. The independent variable was participation or nonparticipation in a Human Potential course, Psychology 8:135. Pretest scores were the covariates or control variables, and posttest scores were the dependent or criterion variables.

In addition to testing for overall significance between groups, analysis of variance and t-tests were made to test for effects within groups. Experimentals and controls were broken down into the following subgroups to test for significant differences: sex (male and female), status (new and returning), curriculum (arts-science and vocational-technical), residence (home, dormitory, and other), and class (four Human Potential groups and three English classes).

Analysis of covariance disclosed that the systematic variation between experimentals and controls reflected in posttest scores adjusted for covariance was statistically significant for only one scale, Self Acceptance, which measures the ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies.

The Human Potential Seminars were not found to have a statistically significant positive overall effect on the self-actualization of the participants. Trueblood and McHolland developed the Human Potential group process with the express purpose and goal of assisting persons to gain a more positive self-image. The significant results on the Self Acceptance Scale showed that the Human Potential Seminars have a specific positive effect on participants.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND THE HUMAN POTENTIAL GROUP PROCESS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

A Dissertation

Presented to

The School of Graduate Studies

Drake University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

---

by

Barbara Hagans Durschmidt

May 1977

SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND THE HUMAN POTENTIAL GROUP PROCESS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

Barbara Hagans Durschmidt

Approved by Committee:

Stuart C. Tiedeman
Chairman

Richard H. Brooks

Howard Tropller

Marvin Fellers

Margaret E. Lloyd

Earle J. Canfield
Dean of the School of Graduate Studies

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Alvin Toffler's best-seller, Future Shock, begins with these words:

> In the three short decades between now and the 21st century, millions of ordinary, psychologically "normal" people will face an abrupt collision with the future. Citizens of the world's richest and most technologically advanced nations, many of them, will find it increasingly painful to keep up with the incessant demand for change that characterizes our time. For them, the future will have arrived too soon.[1]

"Future shock" holds many implications for educators in general and counselors in particular. Even now, people find themselves faced with a dramatic breakdown in the traditional family structure; literally bombarded with information and technological advances almost beyond belief; exposed to and tempted toward a variety of diverging, and sometimes conflicting, life styles; moving themselves and their belongings about the country and the world like a tribe of nomads; and forced to make critical, life-altering decisions with a bare minimum of counsel and advice.[2]

---

[1] A. Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 1.

[2] Lewis B. Morgan, "Counseling for Future Shock", Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52 (1974), 285.

Working in and with groups might well be one of the most important aspects of the expertise of the counselor of the 1980's. If the present trend is any indication, groups will probably be structured into programs in schools, business, industry, churches, organizations, etcetera. These groups would be designed to accommodate people who are passing through similar life transitions at about the same time, people who have recently moved into an area or are about to move out, people who are recently widowed or divorced, drug users, people facing retirement, students or adults moving from one educational level to another (including dropouts as well as graduating seniors), women seeking a new career identity. In such a group experience setup, people would be able to experience some sense of togetherness, trade useful ideas, suggest future alternatives for one another--in short, pool their resources.[1]

In recent years, the group concept has increased greatly both in kind and scope. While some of the group procedures have proven to be very beneficial to the participants, others have proven to be largely ineffectual and in some instances, harmful.[2] A more detailed discussion of this particular aspect of group work will be presented in the Review of Literature.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] E. L. Shostrum, "Group Therapy: Let the Buyer Beware," Psychology Today, May, 1969, pp. 36-40.

The study to be discussed and presented herein was an attempt to provide an additional perspective of the humanizing forces present in higher education. The process used was the examination of a particular human development course in depth. The innovative student personnel practice studied was the Human Potential Seminar, a concept developed by McHolland and Trueblood.[1]

The development, procedures and present status of the Human Potential Seminars are described as a part of an emerging model presently finding favor and acceptance within the field of student personnel and higher education. This model presents a group experience in which "human development" or "the development of the student" is the primary concern.[2]

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem under investigation in this study was to determine whether community college students moved significantly toward self-actualization after having attended Human Potential Seminars. The study attempted to accomplish this by duplicating the procedures used in the study, "Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group

---

[1]James McHolland and Roy Trueblood, Human Potential Seminars, Leaders Manual (Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College Press, 1972).

[2]Terry O'Banion, Alice Thurston and James Gulden, Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 201.

Process", by Trueblood and McHolland.[1] Their study contained ninety-five students from Kendall College, a private liberal arts college, which subsequently allowed this investigator the opportunity to determine whether similar results could be obtained in a somewhat different academic setting. The results of the above mentioned study are discussed in the Review of Literature.

HYPOTHESES TO BE TESTED

The main research hypothesis of the study was that the Human Potential Seminar produces positive changes in participants. For experimental purposes this hypothesis was stated in null form as follows: There will be no significant post-test differences between the experimental groups and control groups as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's[2] Personal Orientation Inventory.

The five sub-hypotheses are as follows:

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between males and females within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential

---

[1] Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process (Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970).

[2] E. L. Shostrum, The Personal Orientation Inventory (San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1963).

Seminar between new and returning students within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between arts-science students and voc-tech students within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between students living at home, in the dormitory and other places within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between students in the various Human Potential Groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

The design, instrument, and data analysis procedures employed in testing these hypotheses are described in Chapters III, IV, and V.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

While group counseling programs have expanded in the last ten years, research and evaluation efforts have lagged behind. Gazda and Larson[1] made an appraisal of group counseling research conducted from 1939 to 1968. Further summary studies were made in 1971 and 1972 by Gazda[2]

---

[1]G. M. Gazda and M. J. Larson, "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling." Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1 (1968), 57-137.

[2]G. M. Gazda, Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971).

and by Gazda and Peters.[1] The weaknesses found inherent in group counseling in these studies were: (1) theoretical orientations were vague; (2) the treatment processes were not clearly presented; (3) qualifications of the group counselors were not clearly identified; (4) there were no specific group goals that could be measured; (5) there were no individual goals for members; (6) unsuitable measurement techniques were used (grade point average, which is unsophisticated, was the most popular for measuring outcomes); and (7) there were inadequate control groups. Gazda and Larson suggested that more and better research was needed.

Mahler indicated that "research efforts will become closely related to counseling practice, and that counseling practice will be much more clearly based upon research efforts."[2] "The exuberant and somewhat irresponsible adolescent period of group counseling seems to be approaching a more responsible adult position."[3] It would seem logical that research efforts should follow suit and should increase both in quantity and quality.

The research objective of the present study is to

---

[1]G. M. Gazda and R. W. Peters, "Analysis of Research in Group Procedures," Educational Technology, January, 1973, pp. 68-75.

[2]C. A. Mahler, "Group Counseling," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1971), 607.

[3]Ibid., p. 608.

provide some evaluation of a new student personnel practice, referred to as a "human development course". This student personnel practice may play a vital role in student personnel work in the 70's, particularly in the two-year college.

An innovative approach for implementing "education for human development" has been the development of the "human development course." Originally advocated by O'Banion and others, this type of course, focusing on personal growth, has begun to be offered on campuses across the country, particularly in the community colleges.[1]

A human development course was developed by Trueblood and McHolland and was referred to as the Human Potential Seminar. They described it as "a structured small group experience founded on the assumption that something is right with the participants. In contrast to traditional group therapy, which starts with the proposition that something is wrong, it is believed that healthy persons can most effectively actualize their own giftedness (potential) by working from the former positive hypothesis."[2] The Human Potential Seminar group process is discussed in depth in Chapter IV.

---

[1]Bruce E. Meyer, "The Impact of a Human Development Course on College Students' Self-Concept, Purpose in Life, and Interpersonal Relations" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, 1975).

[2]Trueblood and McHolland, op. cit., p. 1.

Current literature reveals that very few studies have been conducted on the Human Potential Seminar concept. Of the few studies completed to date, some have found that the Human Potential Seminar did have significant positive effects on the participants and the participants moved toward self-actualization. Other studies, however, have been unable to substantiate any positive effects on the participants. This study was done to contribute to the present sparse literature, and also to determine whether the Human Potential Seminar can be considered a viable method which could facilitate persons in their movement toward self-actualization.

It is essential that more and continued research be conducted in an effort to ascertain what kinds of group work can produce positive effects on group participants. Research of this nature could be helpful to group participants, group leaders, counselors, and administrators in their effort to incorporate quality into the group experience.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

In order to present a clear concept of the topic under discussion, the following operational definitions are presented:

1. Human potential--the sum total of capacities and qualities which, in the human race and in every individual, exist, but have not been brought out and used (actualized); potentialities, therefore, are

individual hidden capacities and qualities.[1]

2. Self-actualization--Fulfilling one's potential.[2]

3. Self-affirmation--Being able to love yourself in specific ways without embarrassment; an increase in self-confidence and self-assurance.[3]

4. Self-determination--Deciding to run your life in terms of what you value; recognizing that you are responsible for what you do to and in your life; not waiting for others to tell you what to do; and not blaming others in your past for what they have done to you or have made you do.[4]

5. Self-motivation--Getting oneself started; not waiting for someone to make us do something or rewarding us for doing it. This puts the responsibility on ourselves.[5]

6. Increasing empathetic regard--Understanding another person from his point of view; "feeling with" another person where he is, and not where you want him to be; caring about people, liking or loving them, and being concerned about their growth and happiness.[6]

7. Human potential group--A structured group process in the sense that the group moves through a number of phases. Throughout the process, the emphasis is on positive and constructive feedback and self-awareness. It is not an encounter or sensitivity experience. However, a genuine encounter with oneself and others takes place as you look at "who" you are and

---

[1]Herbert A. Otto, A Guide to Developing Your Potential (Hollywood, California: Wilshire Book Co., 1970), p. 12.

[2]Abraham H. Maslow, "Neurosis as a Failure of Personal Growth," Humanities, 3 (1967), 153-170.

[3]James D. McHolland and Roy W. Trueblood, Human Potential Seminars, Participants Workbook (Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College Press, 1972), p. i-ii.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid.

"who" you are "becoming".[1]

DELIMITATIONS

This study was limited to students at Iowa Central Community College, Fort Dodge, Iowa. The Human Potential Groups consisted of students who registered in groups (i.e., classes) in the fall of 1974. The control groups consisted of students registered in English I during the same time period.

SOURCES OF DATA

Data pertinent to this study were collected by means of a pretest-posttest of the Personal Orientation Inventory given to both the Human Potential Groups and the English classes.

The procedures for collection of the data are described in Chapter III.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study was organized into six chapters. Chapter I, Introduction, states the problem, the hypothesis to be tested, need for the study, definition of terms, delimitations, sources of data, and organization of the study. Chapter II presents a review of related literature. The procedures followed in gathering and treating the data are discussed in Chapter III. Chapter IV discusses group procedures. Chapter V presents the findings in tabular and discussion form, while Chapter VI presents a summary of the

---

[1] Ibid.

findings, the conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature seems to center around three aspects of group work and consequently has been arranged in three sections: the history and evolution of group work and why it has come about, the present situation and some concerns, and the human potential group movement.

THE EVOLUTION OF GROUPS

The development of group counseling has a relatively short history of 30 to 40 years. It was slow in gaining acceptance, but in the last ten years, it has expanded rapidly in school and non-school settings. Rapid acceptance of encounter and sensitivity groups helped the growth of group counseling, but also focused many of the weaknesses of sensitivity training on group counseling. Two other factors contributing to the growth of group counseling have been the steady development of group psychotherapy in the past thirty years and the increased sophistication in the design of programs and in research with groups.[1]

---

[1]Clarence A. Mahler, "Group Counseling," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1971), 601.

The therapist who saw the infancy of group therapy in Pratt's work with Boston tuberculosis patients in 1905 and in Adler's group therapy with the Viennese working class in the 1920's may still be alive today. Not until the 1930's did cross-fertilization begin between group dynamics and group therapy.[1]

By the 1940's the group therapist was seen as ingeniously providing the "real product". In the 1950's he emerged as a special type of practitioner with an identity of his own. In the 1960's he deepened and broadened his work with individuals in a variety of educational and social applications. He continued his work with neurotics, psychotics, alcoholics, drug addicts, the obese, the maritally disturbed, the distressed family, the geriatric, the child, the adolescent, and the adult. The settings included didactic classroom groups, therapeutic social clubs, private therapy offices, social work agencies, schools and colleges, and mental hospitals. The group therapist employed psychoanalysis, psychodrama, play therapy, repressive-inspirational, transactional, group dynamic, nonverbal, semantic, videotape, and experiential methods. Now, in the 1970's, the group therapist seeks to conserve these gains while adding enrichment and

---

[1]Myron Gordon and Norman Liberman, "Group Psychotherapy: Being and Becoming," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1971), 611.

variations.[1]

The history of the group movement in the twentieth century has been reviewed extensively by O'Banion and O'Connor.[2]

Approaches to group counseling are reflective of what is happening within society. A look at past and future social problem-solving needs provides insight into the evolving group counseling techniques and approaches.

In the 1930's and 40's--years of depression and stress--a person's survival was closely linked to his ability to earn a living. Occupation, job, career could almost be used synonomously with self-concept, for man was judged by what he could produce and what he could earn. Children worried about what they wanted to be when they grew up. Helping people become self-actualized could be done very realistically by focusing on their need to resolve the "self-concept equals job" equation. It was during this period when the most popular term applied to groups designed to help others was "group guidance".[3]

It seems that the development of groups designed to help people live more gratifying lives, or what Maslow

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Terry O'Banion and April O'Connell, The Shared Journey: An Introduction to Encounter (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970).

[3] Walter M. Lifton, "Applying Group Counseling Techniques to Future Social Problem-Solving," Educational Technology, January 1973, pp. 50-51.

termed "engage in self-actualization", depended on a society that was affluent enough that the more basic needs had been met; and people could, therefore, afford to turn their attention to less pressing needs.[1]

In the early 1940's a strong movement developed which had its roots in helping people solve problems based on discussion of the "here and now" instead of the past, and focused on each man's view of life and reality. This phenomenological approach was given tremendous impetus by the work of Carl Rogers, who developed techniques that were equally useful in helping normally anxious people as well as those who were seriously disturbed. However, when this approach was used with less disturbed people, it was usually called group counseling.[2]

During the 1950's, after the war, society was preoccupied with the effect of authoritarian dictatorships on society. The counseling techniques of this period show a concern with insuring that any helping process not foster dependency nor permit leader control over directions or goals of the group. The new emphasis was on a materialistic, pragmatic, effective group with its leadership developed within democratic limits.[3]

The end is coming of a different cycle which

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

occurred during an era of prosperity for most parts of society. It is also a period of genocides, hydrogen bombs, and a quest for immediate satisfactions in a world in which there might be no tomorrow. The have-nots have become aware of the concept of power. Some people have returned to the simple life of the commune, to the soil and to handcrafts.[1]

The rapid growth of the group movement is due to people's need for help to adjust to these new and alien situations. Growth groups help people cope with the changing environment, rather than attempting to heal deep wounds after a hurt has occurred.

THE PRESENT SITUATION

The growth of the "group movement" has been dramatic, appears to be accelerating, and has touched in some way a large and increasing portion of society. Many have participated directly in one or more group experiences organized by group leaders and trainers in business, industry, education and government. Others have been members of groups established by psychologists and psychiatrists engaged in private practice or have attended group institutes such as those sponsored by Esalen Institute or National Training Laboratories.[2]

Aside from those who have had a direct exposure to

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Wayne Rowe and Bob B. Winborn, "What People Fear About Group Work: An Analysis of 36 Selected Critical Articles," Educational Technology, January 1973, p. 53.

some type of group process activity, literally millions of people have been able to experience vicariously group sessions through various forms of mass media. Motion pictures such as Bob and Carol and Ted and Alice and Made for Each Other have given countless numbers of Americans at least a superficial, though slanted, understanding of what occurs during and after a group experience. Books such as Joy (Schutz, 1967), Please Touch (Howard, 1970) and What to Do Till the Messiah Comes (Gunther, 1970) introduced thousands to the group world. Various types of group sessions or encounters have been videotaped and then aired on commercial television. The "group movement" also became popularized by reports and feature stories carried in newspapers, periodicals and other publications designed to reach a mass audience. In addition, as group process activities spread over the nation, they became controversial--and many citizens became aware of the phenomenon by way of local debates over the merits and potential dangers of group work.[1]

The rapid growth of group work, the lack of appropriate safeguards to protect the consumers of group experiences, and the development of several new and unorthodox group procedures, such as sensory awareness sessions and nude marathons, has caused a number of laymen as well

---

[1] Ibid.

as members of the helping professions, to become alarmed and apprehensive over the nature and practice of many forms of group work and the possible negative results that could accrue to the individual and society.

Some of the current variations on the group method are discussed in Family Health and are summarized below.[1]

ENCOUNTER GROUPS. Encounter groups lead to fast, dramatic results in helping participants establish feelings of closeness, openness, and trust. Group meetings emphasize direct, strong, sensual experiences rather than conversation. Such groups flourished in the 1960's and were originally meant to be a learning, rather than a therapeutic, experience. Groups of businessmen, policemen, and teachers would spend several days learning, through role playing and games, to understand their own feelings of hostility, as well as their desire to be loved and accepted. At that time, emotionally unstable people were carefully screened out of encounter groups.

In the past two years, many mental health experts have opposed encounter groups. Recent studies have shown approximately one-third of the encounter group members have gained nothing, another third reported "negative outcomes" and some have sustained psychological injury.

BEHAVIORAL THERAPY. This method assumes it is not

---

[1]"Putting Yourself Together", Family Health, April 1974, pp. 63-82.

always necessary to alter deep-rooted personality characteristics to change a person's life. Instead, behavior must be changed. Since most behavior is learned, undesirable behavior can be unlearned. A client in behavioral therapy may wish to overcome a phobia or a compulsion, such as overeating, or an unreasonable fear of driving. Most behaviorist groups meet for weeks rather than months or years, with the emphasis on eliminating the disturbing symptoms quickly. This is done through a conditioning process, aimed at changing behavior patterns.

TRANSACTIONAL GROUPS. These groups are based on the theory, first proposed by Eric Berne, that the personality has three separate components: the Child, the Parent, and the Adult. Berne maintains that most people spend a great deal of time playing games with each other. In the group, transactions are analyzed in terms of the game theory.

GESTALT THERAPY. This is a modified analytical technique which is supposed to bring faster, more dramatic results than the classic analytical method. Gestalt therapists maintain that many people cannot cope with their whole personalities because there are factors and attributes which they cannot face. Participants are confronted with the "missing" parts so they can be "made whole".

PRIMAL SCREAM. This technique was devised by Arthur Janov and is an outgrowth of the encounter movement. Primal

scream encourages members of the group to "get hold of a feeling" and to express it in a series of screams, that increase in volume and intensity until the patient becomes totally overwrought. Patients are then soothed by the group and the therapist, and, hopefully, are "liberated" from whatever inhibitions kept them from functioning. Only a very small number of psychologists have endorsed this unorthodox form of treatment; many have warned that such treatment is dangerous.

Shostrum discussed some harmful effects of groups along with some of the benefits. He emphasized careful selection of groups and group leaders, and offered some practical guidelines for choosing both. Shostrum also noted that Carl Rogers has said that the encounter group may be the most important social invention of the century. The group experience has invaded every setting--industry, the church, universities, prisons, and resorts, among others. The demand for group experience has grown so tremendously that there are not enough trained psychologists, psychiatrists or social workers to meet it directly. As a result, groups organized by lay leaders have proliferated. While some of these groups have honestly and efficiently fulfilled their almost miraculous promises, others have been useless, stupid, dangerous, corrupt and even fatal. Leadership should be trained in such a way that

the public will be protected.[1]

Dreyfus and Kremenliev cautioned that the haphazard use of powerful group methods by untrained practitioners who lead a single demonstration or workshop can be dangerous. Such leaders seldom consider the damage that can be done either to the participants themselves or to those interacting with the participants after the workshop is over.[2]

In group therapy today there is confusion mixed with excitement about new combinations of theory and practice from the recent group explosion. Slavson cautioned about the need for validating new practices in group psychotherapy:

> One gains the impression that often an accidental observation, a special feeling about a specific development, or an idea derived from an isolated experience is offered in doctrinaire fashion as a valid total practice. In themselves, these formulations may have potentially great value for they are elements out of which a total therapy can eventually emerge.[3]

THE HUMAN POTENTIAL MOVEMENT

The common denominator reflected in schools of thought today is a turning toward humanistic conceptions of

---

[1]E. L. Shostrum, "Group Therapy: Let the Buyer Beware," Psychology Today, May, 1969, pp. 36-40.

[2]Edward A. Dreyfus and Elva Kremenliev, "Innovative Group Techniques: Handle with Care," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1970), 279-282.

[3]S. R. Slavson, "Eclecticism Versus Sectarianism in Group Psychotherapy," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 30 (1970), 3-14.

self-actualization. In Maslow's words, "This psychology is not purely descriptive or academic; it suggests action and implies consequences. It helps to generate a way of life, not only for the person himself within his own private psyche, but also for the same person as a social being, a member of society.[1]

In the world of today and particularly in the United States, there is a renewal of interest in methods that are designed to foster the personal growth of normal individuals. Such methods are being developed and used by psychotherapists, teachers, artists, social scientists and creative laymen in various settings throughout the country, including adult education, human-relations training, and a variety of more specialized forms. These efforts all share the common goal of seeking to cultivate normal human functioning beyond the level of average performance, and are thus classified as a part of the human potentialities movement.[2]

Clark has coined the term "human growth potential movement" to describe the plethora of organizations, centers, schools, institutes and publications which are

---

[1]A. H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (Princeton, New Jersey: Van Nostrand, 1962), p. iii.

[2]Herbert A. Otto and John Mann, Ways of Growth (New York: The Viking Press, 1968), p. vii.

covering America at the present time.[1]

Otto stated that, "A new concept and a new image of Homo Sapiens is emerging; it is man aware of his individual being, which is a cornucopia of latent, many faceted abilities, of unacknowledged and unsuspected powers and capacities that collectively form the totality of his potential." The unfolding of potential within must involve a process which brings wholeness and unity. Wholeness implies recognition of and participation in all parts of the environment, with the aim of bringing the outer realities into closer consonance with the deepest values and aspirations which lie at the core of human potentialities.[2]

Maslow's research and theories have stimulated the development of an important new direction in psychology--the humanistic movement. Maslow called humanistic psychology the "third force" in psychology, the first two forces being psychoanalysis and behaviorism. Humanistic psychology is more concerned with human potential than with personality disorders; it seeks ways to promote self-development and growth.[3]

---

[1]Donald H. Clark, "Encounter in Education," Confrontation: Encounters in Self and Interpersonal Awareness, eds. Leonard Blank, Gloria B. Gottsegen and Monroe G. Gottsegen (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971).

[2]Herbert A. Otto, A Guide to Developing Your Potential (Hollywood, California: Wilshire Book Co., 1970), p. 213.

[3]Morris K. Holland, Psychology, An Introduction to Human Behavior (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath & Co., 1974), p. 29.

The ideas of Carl Rogers and Fritz Perls are all part of a huge and almost cult-like interest in the subject of psychology, especially the "third force" psychology.[1]

Carl Rogers' client centered-therapy assumes that the client has the potential for self-actualization. Fritz Perls is identified with gestalt therapy which concentrates on recognizing and re-integrating the fragmented parts of the self. Many people seek help from the ideas of client-centered and gestalt therapy in group settings. They are growing increasingly popular, largely because of the rapid change of pace in society.[2]

Otto also saw the group as a prime resource for self exploration of potentialities.[3]

Eric Berne's ideas mesh well with the idea common to nearly all third force psychologists; "...we are in control of our own lives and we can make ourselves and our lives whatever we want."[4]

Clark designated the Association for Humanistic Psychology as the spokesman organization for the "human growth potential movement." He added that the human growth movement has hit schools just as it has hit other

---

[1]John H. Brennecke and Robert C. Amick, Psychology and Human Experience (Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1974), pp. 290-295.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Otto, loc. cit.

[4]Brennecke and Amick, loc. cit.

institutions and professions that profess to serve human growth needs.[1]

Egan saw the human potential group movement arising from the failure of education "to be a vehicle for putting people in growthful contact with one another."[2] A consequence of the educational process is that the potential of the child is often lost from sight. A few pioneers concerned with the current level of thinking in education were not blind to what the American educational system has done to children. This is illustrated by the following comment by educator Lawrence Kelso Frank:

> To view education as a process of evoking human potentialities, and especially for establishing knowing relations with the world, shifts educational thinking and practice from the transmission or imparting of static knowledge to a more or less passive pupil, a survival of Lockean psychology, to an emphasis on learning as an active process of establishing knowing relations with the world. Inevitably this requires a recognition and cultivation of those human potentialities which have been neglected, or often suppressed in the interest of an intellectualistic conception of learning.[3]

McHolland declared that "the emphasis for human development facilitators needs to move toward a permeating of the entire educational experience with humanistic

---

[1]Clark, op. cit., p. 354.

[2]Gerard Egan, Encounter: Group Processes for Interpersonal Growth (Belmont, California: Brooks-Cole Publishing Company, 1970), p. i.

[3]Lawrence K. Frank, "Four Ways to Look at Potentialities," New Insights and the Curriculum, ed., A. Frazier (Washington D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1963), p. 34.

assumptions and experiences . . . it is imperative to interact with as many forces as possible toward humanizing the college as well as the elementary and secondary schools."[1]

Students are in agreement that there should be a shift from the acquisition of knowledge to student development as the primary goal of higher education. This finding comes from an extensive research project by Peterson, who administered the Institutional Goals Inventory to faculty, students, administrators, trustees, and citizens of local communities of 116 private and public colleges in California. In reference to this, Cross said:

> The students in Peterson's California goals study showed extensive dissatisfaction with the lack of attention presently given to the personal development of students. Students on all types of campuses agreed that colleges should give the goal of student development top priority.[2]

Thus, as never before, students, professors of higher education, humanistic and developmental psychologists, committees sponsored by foundations, and others are calling for a renewed emphasis on individual development as a priority of higher education. This reaffirmation of the goal of college student development has presented both an

---

[1]James D. McHolland, "For All the People: A Futuristic Look at Human Development Instruction" (paper presented at Human Development Workshop in Dallas, June, 1972), p. 22.

[2]K. P. Cross, "New Students in a New World," The Future in the Making: Current Issues in Higher Education, ed. D. W. Vermilye (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973), p. 91.

opportunity and demand for new forms of education.

Recommendations for change have been forthcoming. The theme of numerous reports by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has been that higher education in the United States needs to be more "humanized".[1]

Leonard has declared that affective education is "education's new domain."[2] O'Banion suggested that "the most exciting innovations in community college student personnel programs are occuring in the area of group counseling."[3] He further asserted that today, "hundreds of community colleges have turned old personal adjustment courses into new credit courses in self-development.[4] Collins stated that "in human development courses the expectations of society are not forced upon the student; rather, the student is invited to discover why a person should be educated and for what.[5]

Creamer et. al. conducted a two-part nationwide survey to determine the nature and extent of human

---

[1]Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Less Time, More Options (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), p. 6.

[2]George B. Leonard, Education and Ecstasy (New York: The Delacorte Press, 1968).

[3]Terry O'Banion, New Directions in Community College Student Personnel Programs (Washington, D. C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1971), p. 32.

[4]O'Banion, op. cit., p. 72

[5]Charles C. Collins, College Orientation: Education for Relevance (Boston: Holbrook Press, Inc., 1969), p. 57.

development instruction in community colleges. Unfortunately, a similar study has not been made for four-year colleges and universities. Of the 920 institutions contacted in the first part of the survey, 322 responded and 100 of these indicated having an operational human development program. The latter were contacted in the second part of the survey to "gather detailed information about human development (HD) programs in progress." Some of the relevant findings of this survey were:

1. All respondents said their HD programs helped improve the self-concept of students.

2. Ninety-three percent said their HD program helped establish a more healthy learning climate at their college.

3. Fifty-three percent said their HD program has been utilized for professional staff development.

4. Seventy-seven percent said evidence led them to believe that HD courses helped curtail student drop-out.

5. Ninety percent said their HD programs helped link student personnel to the instructional program.

6. Sixty percent said their HD program helped open the door to other nontraditional instruction at their college.

7. Sixty-nine percent said student interest in HD courses was high.

8. Forty-five percent said they didn't offer enough sections of HD to meet student demand for the courses.

9. Seventy percent said their faculty recognized the HD curriculum as a legitimate and worthwhile program.

10. Ninety-three percent said that, on the whole, their administration supported and recognized the value of HD offerings.

These results tend to lend credence to some of the claims and optimism of proponents of human development programs. A human development workshop was held as a follow-up to these two surveys; plans of action for further implementation of human development programs resulted.[1]

Collins contended that human development courses were being offered in increasing numbers by student personnel workers because such courses not only provided a positive and preventative means of institutional intervention in the lives of students, but also because they were sound means of providing perhaps the most broad and meaningful orientation experience possible for the student.[2]

Berg saw the emerging role of student personnel workers as heavily involving the integration of humanistic emphases into the instructional program by demonstrating to teachers that cognitive and affective learning could take place <u>together</u> in the classroom.

> The first priority. . . for counselors would be to break their monastic vows, leave the cloister, and begin to associate with instructors in the real world of the academic environment. The second priority would be to infiltrate, by whatever means necessary, the

---

[1]D. G. Creamer, V. Pennington, C. R. Morgan, and J. Wesson, <u>Human Development Instruction for Career Students in the Community College: An Exploratory Study</u> (Dallas: El Centro College, 1972), p. 13-15.

[2]Collins, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 23.

academic structure of the community college.[1]

Because of their student-centered commitments, and as a result of their specialized training in human development, student personnel workers should be able to exercise more influence in humanizing education than any other single group today in the community college, according to O'Banion.[2] Warnath added in this connection that:

> The counseling center must become a center for the conservation and development of the human potential which is represented by the thousands of students who populate its particular campus. The center must be a generator of improved interactions between instructional staff and students.[3]

Crookston[4] and O'Banion[5] contended that courses designed specifically for the personal growth and development of students are being created all over the country, particularly in liberal arts colleges and community

---

[1]Ernest H. Berg, "Curriculum Development and Instruction: A Proposal for Reorganization," Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College, eds. Terry O'Banion and Alice Thurston (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 142.

[2]O'Banion, op. cit., p. 77.

[3]Charles Warnath, New Myths and Old Realities: College Counseling in Transition (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 1971), p. 119.

[4]B. B. Crookston, "Education for Human Development," New Directions for College Counselors, ed. C. F. Warnath (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973).

[5]Terry O'Banion, "Organizing and Administering Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College," Peabody Journal of Education, 49 (1972), 268-78.

colleges. O'Banion[1] further suggested that these human development courses are being taught by counselors and other humanistic educators. These courses have been "one of the more imaginative responses to the students' demand for relevancy and meaningfulness in their educational experience."

At present humanistic education techniques and human development emphases have been combined and organized into numerous human development courses. The scope of these courses is broad. Individual courses are usually of two types: focused on any or all aspects of the individual's development or restricted to certain aspects of his experience. Alschuler indicated that courses have been designed:

> To increase achievement motivation, awareness and excitement, creative thinking, interpersonal sensitivity, joy, self-reliance, self-esteem, self-understanding, self-actualization, moral development, identity, nonverbal communication, body awareness, value clarity, meditative processes, and other aspects of ideal adult functioning.[2]

The Human Potential Seminar was represented by McHolland and Trueblood as an appropriate means by which colleges could begin to accomplish the goals of the humanization of all members of the collegiate community and the

---

[1]Terry O'Banion, "Humanizing Education in the Community College", Journal of Higher Education, 42 (1971), 662.

[2]A. S. Alschuler, "The Origins and Nature of Psychological Education," Education Opportunity Forum, 1, no. 4 (1969), 4.

actualization of their potential.[1]

The Human Potential Seminar (HPS) is a human development course which has a pre-determined structure and specific goals tailored to individual needs. Numerous other types of human development courses have more or less structure than the HPS. Kleeman reviewed the literature on human development courses in 1972.[2]

Otto described a course he created, similar to the HPS, entitled, "Developing Your Personal Potential", which he inaugurated at the University of Utah and the University of California Extension in Los Angeles. The course was designed to "help discover capacities, strengths, talents, and abilities which you have but which you may not be aware of or using fully."[3]

Malamud described a course he offered at New York University which capitalized on:

> . . .self-confrontation exercises which offer opportunities for learning a personalized, first-hand way that expanded self-awareness is possible through focusing on what one is experiencing in the here-and-now, that the . . .self can be an active, deliberate

---

[1]Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process (Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970), pp. 1-2.

[2]Joseph Kleeman, "The Kendall College Human Potential Seminar Model and Philosophies of Human Nature," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Kendall College, Evanston, Ill., 1972), p. 52-54.

[3]Otto, op. cit., p. 294.

agent in its own growth and development.[1]

Foulds described several types of "growth groups", established at Bowling Green University in an effort to maximize personal development of interested students and staff.[2]

Clark cited another human development type course offered at New York University as part of a teacher preparation program in which "Group Dynamics techniques such as sensitivity training and role playing" are used to develop personal awareness of the "attitudes and behavior patterns affecting human relations in the schools." Clark found that "courses like it are being offered in universities all over the country".[3]

Kleeman contended that the Human Potential Seminar seemed to fit the category of "human development courses" better than any other category of group methodology because: it has no strictly therapuetic goals, it eschews the expression of strong or negative feelings; and it is not concerned with immediate interpersonal feedback about how

---

[1]Daniel I. Malamud, "The Second-Chance Family: A Medium for Self-Directed Growth", Confrontation: Encounters in Self and Interpersonal Awareness, eds. Leonard Blank, Gloria B. Gottsegen, and Monroe G. Gottsegen (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971), p. 36.

[2]Melvin Foulds and James Guinan, "On Becoming a Growth Center," Journal of College Student Personnel, May 1970, pp. 177-181.

[3]Clark, op. cit., p. 362, 366.

participants "come across" to one another. Perhaps the strongest point of the process is its pervasive emphasis on the alignment of personal goals and values which must result in a deepening philosophy of life, and in a more positive philosophy of human nature.[1]

McHolland announced in the first Human Potential Project Newsletter that there were Human Potential Seminars in the form of classes and workshops being offered in over half the states in the United States. He also included lists of two-year colleges, four-year colleges and universities; religous institutions; high schools and junior highs, and elementary schools; businesses, industries and professions that have utilized the Human Potential Seminars in their settings.[2]

Does the Human Potential Seminar process work? Is it effective? These are questions that need to be answered. Several studies have indicated that the HPS does have significant positive effects on participants, while other studies have found no significant positive effects.

In 1968, McHolland and McInnis found that among HPS groups at Kendall College, 69 percent increased their grade point averages by almost an entire grade point at the end of a one-semester HPS experience, although improving academic

---

[1]Kleeman, op. cit., p. 55.

[2]James McHolland, Human Potential Project Newsletter, Fall, 1974.

performance is not a primary purpose of the HPS. Of the remaining 31 percent, most maintained roughly their same grade point averages. Of those few whose grade point averages went down after participation in a HPS, all raised their grade point averages in summer school. Shortcomings of this study are the lack of a control group and a statistical analysis, and the inappropriateness, for a HP type experience, of the grade point criterion measure.[1]

In 1971, Teal used Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) with a control group design to test 21 HPS participants and 26 nonparticipants at Illinois Central College, Peoria, Illinois. He found that, although experimentals and controls appeared to be from a homogeneous population, no significant differences between them were found in the study.[2]

Nemecek, in 1972, studied the effect of a "Human Potential Seminar" on the self-actualization and academic achievement of underachievers. Underachievers and achievers were assigned randomly to one of three treatment groups including underachievers and achievers, underachievers only, and a no-treatment control group of underachievers. Shostrum's

---

[1]James McHolland and Noel McInnis, Every Student is a Gifted Student (Evanston Illinois: Kendall College, 1968).

[2]Jack Teal, Pre-Post Testing Results for the Development Program--Human Potential Seminars (Peoria, Illinois: Counseling Department, Illinois Central College, 1971).

Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and grade point averages were used as pre- and post-test measurements. Analysis of the data revealed significant changes within the groups on three scales of the POI: Self-Regard, Feeling Reactivity, and Capacity for Intimate Contact. There were no significant differences in the other scales of the POI or in grade point averages.[1]

In 1970, Trueblood and McHolland[2] used a control group design and Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) at Kendall College in Evanston, Illinois, to determine whether students who participated in HPS's became more self-actualized than those who did not. Their finding was that the 33 students in HPS's showed significantly greater movement toward self-actualization than the 62 students in the control group. This finding was based on significant differences on five out of twelve scales of the POI, as reflected by a goodness-of-fit Chi Square Test. The study was weakened in that the experimental and control groups were not matched and the statistic (t - tests) used for data treatment did not take this fact into account.

---

[1]Dean F. Nemecek, "A Study of the Self-Actualization and Academic Achievement of College Underachievers" (Unpublished, Doctoral dissertation, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, 1972).

[2]Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970).

In 1972, Mitchell, Reid, and Sanders[1] attempted to replicate the Trueblood and McHolland study at Muskegon Community College, Muskegon, Michigan. The 35 students in HPS's showed significantly greater movement toward self-actualization than 36 students in the control group. The goodness-of-fit Chi Square test reflected significant differences on five of the twelve scales of the POI. This study arrived at a generally positive conclusion similar to that of Trueblood and McHolland. There does not, however, appear to be a clearly similar effect of the HPS as reflected by the POI in both studies. Mitchell, Reid, and Sanders stated that pre-testing was not conducted until both control and experimental classes were in progress. They also mentioned that the same person conducted both the HPS's and the control group classes involved in the study. These factors may have affected the outcome of the study.

In 1972, Kleeman[2] used Wrightman's Philosophies of Human Nature Scale (PHN) and an improvised Self-Report of four items constructed from the four stated self-concept related goals of the Human Potential Seminar. Eight colleges conducting HPS's according to the Kendall College model participated in the experimental portion of the study.

---

[1]Philip Mitchell, Wayne Reid and Neil Sanders, A Study of the Effectiveness of the Human Potential Seminar (Muskegon, Michigan: Counseling Department, Muskegon Community College), 1972.

[2]Kleeman, loc. cit.

A nonrandomized control group design was used with 188 students in HPS's showing numerous significant differences over 140 non-HPS peers used as controls. Replication of the experimental portion of the study at colleges offering the Kendall College Human Potential Seminar model was recommended.

In 1973, Kleeman[1] replicated his 1972 study with two colleges and conducted a two-month follow-up study. He found consistently positive and significant differences between HPS participants and non-participants on perceptions of themselves and others. He also found that positive effects tended to be maintained or increased over time.

Mayes and Reeves[2] studied the effects of the Human Potential Seminar on the self concept at Surrey Community College, Muskegon, Illinois. Felt's Tennessee Self Concept Scale was the instrument used to measure changes in self esteem and mental health. A pre-test post-test was given to 30 students in the HPS experimental group and 40 students randomly selected as controls. The results indicated that as the over-all self esteem significantly raised, students felt and affirmed their values and strengths and better

---

[1]Joseph Kleeman, A Follow-up Study of the Kendall College Human Potential Seminar Model (Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College), 1973.

[2]Joe B. Maye and James M. Reeves, The Effects of the Human Potential Seminar of the Self-Concept as Measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Muskegon, Illinois: Surrey Community College), 1974.

mental health ensued.

Varelas, in 1973, investigated the effects of the Human Potential Seminar on the self-concept, social adjustment and academic achievement of a group of community college freshmen. The college freshmen were randomly assigned to experimental, placebo, and control groups. The treatment for the experimental group, the HPS, lasted ten weeks; the placebo group treatment consisted of ten weeks of traditional lecture-orientation information; and a control group was used for comparison with the experimental and placebo groups. The results of the HPS group experience were measured by two psychological instruments: the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Bell Adjustment Inventory-Student Form. A student questionnaire was used to investigate social and academic behavior, and to investigate satisfaction with college, short-term goals, long-range vocational goals and value systems. GPA's were statistically analyzed to see if there was a significant difference between the academic achievement of the experimental and control group subjects. Statistical analysis of the data obtained from all instruments and the final GPA's revealed no significant differences between the treatment group and the placebo and control groups.[1]

---

[1]James T. Varelas, "Effects of the Human Potential Seminar on the Self Concept, Academic Achievement and Social Adjustment of Community College Freshmen" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, State University of New York, Albany, New York, 1973).

In 1975, White studied the effects of the Human Potential Laboratory on self-actualization at Kirkwood Community College in Cedar Rapids, Iowa. White used two experimental subject groups, a general group led by six different group leaders (N=127), and homogeneous-heterogeneous groups consisting of subjects with similar and dissimilar personality traits (N=30). A non-equivalent control group was selected from students that did not enroll in the Laboratory (N=71). An analysis of covariance method with pre-test scores serving as covariates was employed in the data analysis. White found that (1) laboratory participation did increase participants' identification with self-actualization traits involving a higher regard for self, a constructive view of the nature of man, and the view that opposites in life are meaningfully related; (2) laboratory participants, from the point of view of the laboratory leaders, the participants themselves, the participants' peers, and the significant others of participants, did experience behavior change that was facilitative to group interaction; (3) group personality composition significantly affected behavior change outcomes, as did leader style; and (4) prior expectations for personal growth did not influence outcomes.[1]

---

[1]John C. White, "A Study of Human Potential Laboratory Groups in a Community College Setting: Group Leader Style, Group Composition and Participant Outcomes" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1975).

SUMMARY

In this chapter, a review of the literature was presented on the history and the evolution of group work, and how and why it came about; the present situation with its prevailing benefits and dangers; the human potential group movement; and group outcome research on Human Potential Seminars.

Group counseling has a short history, but has grown at a rapid pace. It has changed to meet the needs of the people. The literature has shown that the growth of the "group movement" has been dramatic, but that research has lagged behind. Many kinds of groups have sprung up, some beneficial, some worthless, and some even harmful. The literature was not conclusive as to which groups fit into these categories.

The human potential movement was reviewed. Recent trends in humanistic education, college student personnel work, and college counseling centers were described as converging forces from which human development programs, particularly the human development course, are emerging. The human development course has been advocated as a primary vehicle for realizing education for human development. The Human Potential Seminar has been developed for this purpose. Several studies have indicated that the Human Potential Seminars do have significant positive effects on participants; while other studies have shown no

significant positive effects. The present study was developed to contribute further data to the body of literature concerned with group procedures and techniques.

Chapter III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The problem of this study was to determine whether community college students moved significantly toward self-actualization after having attended Human Potential Seminars. This study attempted to accomplish this by duplicating the procedures used in the study, "Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process" by Trueblood and McHolland.[1] Their study was done at a private liberal arts college which allowed this investigator the opportunity to determine whether similar results could be obtained in a somewhat different academic setting.

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used to gather and analyze the data required for the study. It has been divided into five basic sections:

1. Selection of the sample.
2. The selection of the instrument.
3. The description of the instrument.
4. Collection of the data.

---

[1]Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process (Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970).

5. Statistical treatment of the data.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sample population used in the experimental group consisted of the Iowa Central Community College students who registered for the Human Potential course (8:135) at the Fort Dodge Center for the fall semester, 1974.

All students entered the Human Potential experience on a voluntary basis; thus the groups were heterogeneous with regard to sex, achievement level, classification in college, or division of the college. Due to the structure and goals of the Human Potential course, group participants were assumed to be normal, healthy persons rather than persons in need of psychotherapy.

The Human Potential course was offered through the Education and Psychology department and carried two semester hours of credit on a pass/no pass basis. All groups met for three hours per week for a period of twelve weeks or a total of thirty-six hours. An Advanced Human Potential group followed for the next six weeks, but was not included in this study.

The control group consisted of students enrolled in freshman English I classes held during the same semester. No attempt was made to match the two groups. However, they were alike in that they had all graduated from high school, had less than two years of undergraduate work,

were attending a Community College, and were assumed to be normal, healthy persons. The variable being tested in this study was the possible effect the Human Potential Seminar had on the participants' process of self-actualization.

THE SELECTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The Personal Orientation Inventory, hereafter referred to as the POI, was the instrument used in the study. The POI was also the instrument used in Trueblood and McHolland's "Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process" and was essential in order to duplicate their study. The POI has been cited as a reasonably valid and reliable measure of psychological well-being or positive mental health by Fox, Knapp and Michael;[1] Grossack, Armstrong and Lessieuv;[2] Ilardi and May;[3] Klavetter and

---

[1] J. Fox, R. R. Knapp, and W. B. Michael, "Assessment of Self-Actualization of the Psychiatric Patients; Validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 28 (1968), 565-569.

[2] M. M. Grossack, T. Armstrong, and G. Lussiev, "Correlates of Self-Actualization," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 6 (1966), 87-88.

[3] R. L. Ilardi and W. T. May, "A Reliability Study of Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 8, (1968), 68-72.

Morgan[1] Knapp;[2] Shostrum;[3-4] and Shostrum and Knapp.[5]

In other studies this instrument has shown a relationship between one or more of its scale scores and the effects of therapy by Braun;[6] the effects of group experiences by Byrd,[7] Culbert, Clark and Bobele;[8] teaching

---

[1]R. E. Klavetter and R. E. Morgan, "Stability and Internal Consistency of a Measure of Self-Actualization," Psychological Reports, 21, 1967, 422-424.

[2]R. R. Knapp, "Relationship of a Measure of Self-Actualization to Neuroticism and Extraversion," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 29 (1965), 168-171.

[3]E. L. Shostrum, "A Test for the Measurement of Self-Actualization," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 24 (1965), 207-218.

[4]E. L. Shostrum, Manual for the Personal Orientation Inventory. (San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1966).

[5]E. L. Shostrum and R. R. Knapp, "The Relationship of a Measure of Self-Actualization (POI) to a Measure of Pathology (MMPI) and to Therapeutic Growth," American Journal of Psychotherapy, 20 (1966), 193-202.

[6]J. R. Braun, "Effects of 'Typical Neurotic' and 'After Therapy' Sets on Personal Orientation Inventory Scores," Psychological Reports, 19 (1966), 1282.

[7]R. E. Byrd, "Training in a Non-group," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 7 (1967), 18-27.

[8]S. A. Culbert, J. V. Clark and H. K. Bobele, "Measures of Change Toward Self-Actualization in Two Sensitivity Training Groups," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15 (1968), 53-57.

ability by Dandes;[1] the effects of growth groups on personal growth by Foulds,[2-3] Guinan and Foulds;[4] and such personality characteristics as psychopathy and family background by Gibb;[5] and academic achievement by Green,[6] LeMay and Damm,[7] and Stewart.[8]

Buros' Mental Measurement Yearbook states, "The POI lacks some desirable properties as an inventory because of the rather pervasive item overlap on its subscales. However, its two major scales, time competence and inner

---

[1]H. M. Dandes, "Psychological Health and Teaching Effectiveness," Journal of Teacher Education, 17 (1966), 301-306.

[2]Melvin L. Foulds, "Effects of a Personal Growth Group on a Measure of Self-Actualization," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 10 (1970), 33-38.

[3]Melvin L. Foulds, "Measured Changes in Self-Actualization as a Result of a Growth Group Experience, "Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 8 (1971), 338-341.

[4]J. G. Guinan and Melvin L. Foulds, "Marathon Group: Facilitator of Personal Growth?," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 17 (1970), 145-149.

[5]L. L. Gibb, "Home Background and Self-Actualization Attainment," Journal of College Student Personnel, 9 (1968), 49-53.

[6]Edith Green, "The Relationship of Self-Actualization to Achievement in Nursing," (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1967).

[7]M. L. LeMay and V. J. Damm, "The Personal Orientation Inventory as a Measure of the Self-Actualization of Underachievers," Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1 (1968), 110-114.

[8]R. Stewart, "Academic Performance and Components of Self-Actualization," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26 (1968), 918.

support, are free of this problem if used by themselves. A number of studies indicate that the inner support scale measures feelings, values, and attitudes appropriate to Maslow's concept of self-actualization, but that persons scoring high on these attitudes and values are not necessarily utilizing all of their capabilities in a way consistent with complete self-actualization. Researchers and practitioners who keep these features of the POI in mind should find it a useful instrument."[1]

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

Maslow[2-3] developed the concept of the self-actualizing person, one who is more fully functioning and lives a more enriched life than does the average person. This individual is seen as developing and utilizing all of his unique capabilities, or potentialities, free of the inhibitions, and emotional turmoil of those less self-actualized. Many counselors and therapists have felt the need for a comprehensive measure of values and behavior seen to be of importance in the development of self-actualization. The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)

---

[1] Oscar K. Buros, ed., The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook, Vol. 1 (New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1972), p. 121.

[2] A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper, 1970).

[3] A. H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (New York: Van Nostrum, 1962).

was created by Shostrum[1] to meet this need.

The POI consists of 150 two-choice paired-opposite statements of values and behavior judgments. The first of the ratio scales is Tc/Ti, or Time Competence, Time Incompetence. This scale measures the degree to which an individual lives in the present as contrasted with the past or future. The time competent person lives primarily in the present with full awareness, contact and full feeling reactivity while the time incompetent person lives primarily in the past, with guilts, regrets and resentments, and/or in the future with idealized goals, plans, expectations, predictions and fears. It provides measures on 12 scales (10 sub-scales plus two ratio-scores) of personal values, self-perception, and feelings that seem to be significant in describing a full-functioning or self-actualized person.[2]

The second is the I/O scale which is designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self oriented" (inner directed) or "other oriented" (other directed). Inner, or self-directed individuals are guided primarily by internalized

---

[1]E. L. Shostrum, The Personal Orientation Inventory (San Diego: Education and Industrial Testing Service, 1963).

[2]E. L. Shostrum, Manual for the Personal Orientation Inventory (San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1963), p. 15-24.

principles and motivations while other directed persons, to a greater extent, tend to be influenced by peer groups or other external forces. The time and the support ratio scores cover two major areas important in personal development and interpersonal interaction.[1]

Scores on each of the ten subscales are intended to reflect a facet important in the development of self-actualization. The SAV (self-actualizing value) scale measures the degree of affirmation of the primary values of self-actualizing people. The Ex (existentiality) scale measures the ability to situationally or existentially react without rigid adherence to principles. The Fr (feeling reactivity) scale measures sensitivity or responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings. The S (spontaneity) scale measures freedom to react spontaneously or to be oneself. The Sr (self-regard) scale measures affirmation of self because of worth or strength. The Sa (self-acceptance) scale measures ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies. The Nc (nature of man) scale measures degree of the constructive view of the nature of man as contrasted to a pessimistic outlook. The Sy (synergy) scale measures ability to transcend dichotomies or tolerate and constructively use ambiguity. The A (acceptance of aggression) scale measures

---

[1] Ibid.

the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensiveness, denial, and repression of agression. Scale C (capacity for intimate contact) measures ability to develop intimate relationships with other human beings unencumbered by expectations and/or obligations.[1]

COLLECTION OF THE DATA

The Personal Orientation Inventory was administered to the Human Potential classes, the experimental group (N=38), as a pre-test, by their individual class leaders during the first week of class, fall semester, 1974. At the same time, the inventory was administered by the instructors of English I classes, which served as the control group (N=63). The experimenter was not involved in the collection of data. The inventory was administered again to both groups at the conclusion of the Human Potential seminars which covered a period of 12 weeks. The tests were machine scored. After tabulation was completed and results summarized, appropriate tables for exhibiting the data were developed and are presented in Chapter V, Findings of the Study.

DESIGN AND HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

Lindquist contended that there are experimental situations in which it is either impossible or impracticable

---

[1] Ibid.

to control a concomitant variable by direct selection of the subjects. Sometimes administrative conditions make direct control impracticable. For example, an administrator may permit an educational experimenter to use different experimental methods of instruction with different school classes, but may require that he use the classes as they are normally organized. That is, he may not allow the experimenter to reorganize the classes into "matched" classes for the purpose of the experiment, since such reassignments would introduce conflicts in other aspects of the students' schedule. In situations in which experimental control of a concomitant variable may be either impossible or impracticable, it is sometimes possible to resort to statistical control of that variable.[1]

Kerlinger suggested that perhaps the most used experimental design is the nonrandomized control group design in which there is no clear assurance that the experimental and control groups are equivalent. He stated that very frequently in research it is impossible to equate groups by random selection or assignment or by matching, and that other means must, therefore, be utilized to establish equivalence.[2]

---

[1]E. F. Lindquist, Design Analysis of Experiments in Psychology and Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1953), p. 317.

[2]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations and Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 347-353.

The means of establishing equivalence in the present nonrandomized control group design are statistical and are discussed under "Statistical Treatment" and in some detail again in Chapter V.

The individual HPS's and control groups employed in the present experimental design are naturally assembled classes "as similar as availability permits but yet not so similar that one can dispense with the pretest". Of this design Campbell and Stanley stated:[1]

> The more similar the experimental and the control groups are in their recruitment, and the more this similarity is confirmed by the scores on the pretest, the more effective this control becomes. Assuming that these desiderata are approximated for purposes of internal validity, we can regard the design as controlling the main effects of history, maturation, testing, and instrumentation, in that the difference for the experimental group between pretest and post-test (if greater than that for the control group) cannot be explained by main effects of these variables such as would be found affecting both the experimental and the control groups.

Where the experimental group deliberately seeks out exposure to the treatment, and there is no control group available from this population of seekers, there are possibilities of selection-maturation interaction and other selection interactions. The nonrandomized control group design is, therefore, weakened somewhat in the present experiment, but, as Campbell and Stanley[2] noted the design:

---

[1]Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi--Experimental Design for Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, Inc., 1966), pp. 47-48.

[2]Ibid.

> . . . does provide information which in many instances would rule out the hypothesis that (the treatment) has an effect. The control group, even if widely divergent in method of recruitment and in mean level, assists in the interpretation.

Lindquist[1] found that:

> Complete freedom from bias and perfect precision in an experiment are . . . both impossible and unnecessary. How biased or how precise an estimate need be depends upon the broader purposes of the experiment. Some experiments are intended to determine only whether an effect exists at all . . . In that case, if the true relationship is pronounced, even a very crude experiment may reveal the presence of the effect or relationship.

The Hawthorne effect was accounted for and was assumed to be negligible, since the tests were "objective" and were administered by indigenous personnel who were not informed as to desirable outcomes on the instruments.

The hypothesis tested in the present study was that the HPS produces significant positive changes in participants as measured by Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory. Stated in Null form, using the pretest as a covariate, there will be no significant pre-test and post-test difference between the experimental and control groups on the twelve scales of Shostrum's POI adjusted for covariance.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT

Lindquist stated that in situations in which experimental control of a concomitant variable may be either impossible or impractical, it is sometimes possible to resort to statistical control of that variable.

---

[1]Lindquist, op. cit., p. 4.

"Observations may be made of the uncontrolled concomitant variations and appropriate adjustments may be made in the criterion means for the various treatment groups, as well as in the error term used in the test of significance." This method of statistical control is known as the method of analysis of covariance.[1]

Gazda and Larson concur with the Cohn report on research in group counseling--that the nonrandomized control group design with analysis of covariance is "particularly applicable" to group outcome research.[2] Campbell and Stanley,[3] McNemar,[4] Dinkmeyer and Muro[5] also recommend analysis of covariance with the experimental design used in this study.

Analysis of covariance controls the possibility of nonequivalance between experimental and control groups on the pretest. McNemar[6] observed that analysis of covariance:

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] G. M. Gazda and M. J. Larson, "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1 (1968), 61ff.

[3] Campbell and Stanley, op. cit., p. 47.

[4] Quin McNemar, Psychological Statistics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 362.

[5] Don C. Dinkmeyer and James J. Muro, Group Counseling: Theory and Practice (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, Publishers, 1971), p. 317.

[6] McNemar, op. cit., p. 362.

> . . . is applicable whenever it seems desirable to correct a difference on a dependent variable for a known difference on another variable which for some reason could not be controlled by matching or by random sampling procedures. Analysis of covariance will provide an adjustment for, and a test of significance of, the difference between two or more groups, and . . . will be usable for either large or small samples. It is assumed that the dependent variable has a distribution which does not depart too far from the normal type and that the variances from group to group are similar.

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) performed on the twelve scales of the POI was used to test the hypothesis in this study. The pretest served as the covariate, and the post-test served as the dependent variable. This procedure is described in more detail in Chapter V. Data from subjects not completing posttesting are not included in the statistical analysis employed in the present experiment.

The results of the analyses are presented in Chapter V.

Chapter IV

THE HUMAN POTENTIAL GROUP PROCEDURES

The Human Potential group process was the variable studied in this experiment. Trueblood and McHolland[1] developed the Human Potential group process with the express purpose and goal of assisting persons in gaining a more positive self-image. It assumes that self-concepts are learned, that one is not born feeling inferior, inadequate, nor superior. If one has learned to think of himself negatively, then he can learn to think of himself in more positive terms as well.

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used in the Human Potential Groups. The chapter has been divided into three parts.

1. Group goals
2. Group leaders
3. Group process

GROUP GOALS

The Human Potential Groups assist persons in achieving the following objectives or purposes: to become

---

[1] Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process (Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970).

more self-determining, more self-motivating, more self-affirming, and more empathetic towards other persons.[1]

Individual goals, both short range and long-range, were formulated as part of the group process and will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

GROUP LEADERS

There were five leaders, all male, who ranged in age from 34 to 43. All were counselors approved by the State Department of Public Instruction. Each of them had over ten years experience in college counseling. Their education levels varied; they included masters, specialist in education, and doctoral degrees.

The leaders of the Human Potential Seminars were trained by two experienced trainers who had studied under McHolland. Each counselor participated in the Basic Human Potential experience and the Advanced Human Potential experience and also served as a group co-leader before attempting to lead a group. Thus, when the present study was conducted, each of the leaders had had experience with Human Potential Groups. There were no inexperienced leaders included in the study.

GROUP PROCESS

McHolland[2] stated, "Human Potential Seminars are a

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] James D. McHolland, Human Potential Seminars, Leaders Manual (Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College Press, 1972). p. 1

structured small group experience founded on the assumption that something is right with the participants. In contrast to traditional group therapy which starts with the proposition that something is wrong, it is believed that healthy persons can most effectively actualize their own giftedness by working from the former positive hypothesis." The Human Potential Seminar is not sensitivity training nor an encounter group. The group experience is structured rather than open-ended. Spontaneity occurs within the process, but the leader does know where he plans to end the group. He uses specific procedures and emphasis to achieve the objectives. Again, the emphasis is on an integration of thinking and feelings about oneself and others, rather than on expressing feelings and receiving feelings-feedback from others. The latter does occur, but it is by no means the primary purpose of the Human Potential experience. Positive feedback is held to be of more primary importance than negative feedback. The assumption is that most people are quite expert in identifying weaknesses and being self-critical. They are less expert at identifying resources and potentialities. Thus, the Human Potential process focuses primarily on what the person has "going for him or her"--on his/her personal resources--rather than on what has him/her "hung-up". To do this, the Seminars elicit individual discovery and group reinforcement of the personal strengths, motivators, values and successful and satisfying

experiences of each participant.[1]

When a student enters the Human Potential Seminar, there are seven phases through which he passes as a part of the experience. The group begins with what is called the personal unfoldment experience. In this experience, each person is encouraged by the leader's example to share as deeply as he can those experiences which he feels have contributed to his being the person that he now is. It can be a freeing and exciting experience to find that other persons are listening and to learn that others have had similar experiences.[2]

The group then moves into the empathetic recall experience. An attempt is made to demonstrate to each person that he/she is of worth to the persons in the group; that he/she has been listened to, that someone has heard his/her verbal and nonverbal communications. At the same time, other persons in the group become aware that they have the potential to listen and to be with others.[3]

Following the recall experience, the group moves into a combination of emphases. In this phase, a person is asked to make an acknowledgement of his/her personal strengths and achievements throughout his/her lifetime.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] James McHolland, "From Stress to the Release of Human Potential" (paper read at the Illinois College Personnel Association, Chicago, Illinois, September 27, 1968).

[3] Ibid.

Each person lists his/her five top personal strengths. This helps him/her begin or continue to think in terms of what he/she has as resources to face his/her environment, whether it be academic, social or otherwise. The group members are given time to list their achievement experiences and then are invited to share these experiences. The group members state the strengths that they think each probably possesses. The person is given the opportunity to share those strengths which he/she has written down. The group may see more strengths in a person than the person has been able to see in him/herself, which has the effect of encouraging the identification of other human potentials.[1]

This is followed by the achievement acknowledgement phase in which each person goes into considerable more detail about those achievements that he/she has had during his/her life. The group then assists that person in understanding the patterns and principles involved in his/her achievements which either help him/her use his/her potential or hinder its expression. An example of this pattern is called external motivation in which a person feels successful or identifies his/her achievements only when they have been identified by someone outside of him/herself.[2]

The third phase of the Human Potential Seminars is

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

structured to help students become aware of how to achieve those things they want to achieve. From the opening session through the sixteenth session, students are involved in the establishment of goals. The seminars are not primarily a "think" or an analysis approach, but rather an action approach. Persons become involved in doing those things for themselves which will put meaning and value into their lives as quickly as possible. Thus, goals are pulled out of the future and put into the present in order to give each person control over what he/she does to and in his/her life. A goal is set each week which is to be achieved by the following week. The goal is to meet the following criteria or guidelines:

1. It is to be conceivable; that is, it must be able to be put into words;

2. It must be believable to that person;

3. It must be measurable in specific rather than general or abstract ways;

4. It must be achievable in the time span;

5. It must be something the person <u>wants</u> to do rather than something he <u>should</u> do;

6. It must not be injurious to self or to others.

Goal setting is the action element in this process in which the person does something he/she wants to do.[1]

The fourth phase of the process is the strength bombardment in which the person cites all his/her personal

---

[1] <u>Ibid</u>.

strengths and invites the group members to share the strengths they see in him/her. Attention is also given by the group to what keeps the person from using his/her strengths fully. Finally, a group fantasy is constructed in which it is imagined what this person can be doing in five or ten years if he/she is using his/her strengths.[1]

The fifth phase focuses on the identification of personal values and the relationship of personal values to personal conflict. Here an attempt is made to help a person identify and rank his/her values in their order of importance. Goal setting is then directly related to one's value system. This helps to reshuffle their value system. Many personal conflicts occur because a person maintains his/her values at an equal level of importance. In conflict resolution, the conflict is identified, the person orders his values in terms of what is most important and then, with the use of top strengths, he/she designs a plan to move him/herself out of the conflict. So long as a person is in conflict, the assumption is that he/she is unable to use his/her potential fully.[2]

A sixth phase is that of potential bombardment. The focus is on areas of latent potential which the person may have. Goal setting is used as a way of tapping into those capacities or talents. In this phase, persons have

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

become involved in doing things, particularly in the creative and artistic area, that they have wanted to do for many years, but did not dream were possible.[1]

The final phase of the process is long range goal establishment in relation to one's values and the drawing of implications of the total human potential experience for each person's style of living.[2]

The Human Potential Process attempts to help students move from stress to a release of human potential.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

Chapter V

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

A short review of the procedures of the study is presented to introduce this chapter. Following this introduction is a presentation of the findings pertinent to the stated null hypotheses and other results obtained from the analysis of the data from the sub-groups.

REVIEW OF PROCEDURES

Pre-tests and post-tests were collected for 38 experimental subjects and 63 control subjects from Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory. All subjects were students enrolled at Iowa Central Community College during the fall term, 1974-75. Experimental groups consisted of four Human Potential Seminars, and control groups were members of three separate English classes.

A nonrandomized control group design was utilized in this study (Kerlinger;[1] Campbell and Stanley[2]). It was considered most appropriate to use analysis of covariance

---

[1]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations and Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 315.

[2]Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi - Experimental Design for Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, Inc., 1966), p. 47.

(ANCOVA) for analysis purposes to compensate for the possibility of nonequivalence on the pre-test between the experimental and control groups. The independent variable was participation or nonparticipation in a Human Potential course, Psychology 8:135. Pre-test scores were the covariates or control variables, and post-test scores were the dependent or criterion variables.

In addition to testing for any significant differences between groups, analysis of variance and t-tests were made to test for any possible differences within groups. Experimentals and controls were broken down into the following subgroups to test for any significant differences: sex (male and female), status (new and returning), curriculum (arts-science and voc-tech), residence (home, dormitory and other), and class (four Human Potential groups and three English classes).

THE FINDINGS

The remainder of this chapter consists of a presentation and discussion of the findings relevant to the null hypothesis, which is repeated here for the convenience of the reader:

> H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between experimental and control groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

The five sub-hypotheses are as follows:

> H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between males and females within the experi-

mental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between new and returning students within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between arts-science students and voc-tech students within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar among students living at home, in the dormitory and other places within the experimental groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

H_0: There are no significant post-test differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar among students in the various Human Potential Groups as measured by the twelve scales of Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory.

The variables included in testing these hypotheses were described in Chapter III. Data relevant to the hypotheses are provided in Tables 1 through 5.

Table 1 presents for experimental and controls the pre and post-test overall means, the standard deviations, the differences between means, and the experimental mean gains minus the control mean gains.

Both the experimental groups and the control groups made significant gains at the .05 level on the SA or Self Acceptance Scale, which measures the ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies.

TABLE 1

POI Pre-Post Overall Means, Standard Deviations, and Differences Between Means

POI Scale	Pretest Experimentals $\bar{X}$* (N=38)	SD	Pretest Controls $\bar{X}$* (N=63)	SD	Pretest Mean Difference	Posttest Experimentals $\bar{X}$	SD	Posttest Controls $\bar{X}$	SD	Posttest Mean Difference	Experimental $\bar{X}$ Gain Minus Control $\bar{X}$ Gain
TC/TI	15.32	3.62	14.57	2.80	.75	15.82	3.95	14.71	3.19	1.11	.36
I/O	80.62	10.83	74.55	10.89	1.07	83.06	11.80	76.74	11.37	6.32	5.25
SAV	19.25	2.93	18.53	2.93	.72	19.16	3.44	18.57	2.93	.59	-.13
EX	19.92	3.86	18.00	4.31	1.92	20.48	4.41	18.07	4.60	2.41	.49
FR	14.86	2.91	14.05	3.25	.81	15.61	3.05	14.61	2.73	2.00	1.19
S	11.98	2.39	10.92	2.67	1.06	12.28	2.90	11.51	2.66	.77	-.19
SR	11.85	2.47	10.75	2.64	1.10	11.95	2.91	11.25	2.26	.70	-.40
SA	14.74	3.36	13.37	3.39	1.37	16.04**	4.01	13.77**	3.91	2.27	.90
NC	11.33	2.23	11.45	1.86	-.12	11.38	2.33	11.40	2.07	-.02	.10
SY	6.60	1.39	6.36	1.27	.24	6.71	1.61	6.36	1.48	.35	.11
A	15.35	3.74	14.04	3.04	1.31	16.30	3.41	15.00	3.36	1.30	-.01
C	17.00	3.39	14.83	3.83	2.17	17.31	3.99	15.39	4.36	1.92	-.25

* Experimental N=38; Control N=63.

** Pre-post difference between means significant at .05 level.

However, the mean scores show no significant differences between pre and post-test mean scores in treatment group and control group with the I/O or Inner-Outer Directed and the FR or Feelings Reactivity showing the largest gain.

An inspection of the mean scores in Table 1, in general, show that the experimental mean difference is greater than the control mean difference. Eleven out of twelve scores for experimentals were higher on both the pre and post-tests. The N/C or Nature of Man Scale was the only control score that was higher than the experimental score on both the pre and post-tests. The data in Table 1 also indicate near equivalence between experimental and control groups on each individual pre-test item in terms of similar mean scores and standard deviations, thus allowing the statistical use of analysis of covariance.

ANCOVA was performed separately on each of the twelve scales of the POI in order to test the main hypothesis. ANCOVA derives one adjusted mean score for each variable in the experimental and control groups. Experimental and control group means adjusted for covariance, and their differences, are presented in Table 2. Significant differences by variable are also shown in this table.

The data in Table 2 show little differences in mean scores between experimentals and controls. The former showed distinctly more movement in a positive direction on only one experimental variable, the SA or Self Acceptance

TABLE 2

POI Experimental & Control Means Adjusted for Covariance

Variable	Experimental	Control	Difference
TC/TI	15.570	14.847	.723
I/O	80.138	78.488	1.650
SAV	18.950	18.681	.269
EX	19.577	18.604	.973
FR	15.339	14.764	.575
S	11.857	11.753	.104
SR	11.577	11.461	.116
SA	15.420	14.128	1.292*
NC	11.408	11.373	.035
SY	6.631	6.381	.250
A	15.798	15.296	.502
C	16.245	16.011	.234

* Significant at the .05 level.

scale, which measures the ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies. This scale showed a significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental mean and the control mean adjusted for covariance. The remaining scales showed no significant differences in mean scores between the pre and post-tests for the experimental groups and the control groups.

A brief resumé of the ANCOVA procedure used in the present experiment is presented at this point to make the results more meaningful.

Winer[1] described analysis of covariance as a statistical control to increase precision and to "remove potential sources of bias in the experiment . . ." In the present experiment, analysis of covariance was particularly appropriate because of the impossibility of assigning subjects at random to the experimental treatment.

The criterion and control variables used in the study were the twelve scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Winer[2] said of analysis of covariance:

> Statistical control is achieved by measuring one or more concomitant variates in addition to the variate of primary interest. The latter variate will be termed the criterion, or simply the variate;

---

[1]B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962), P. 578.

[2]Ibid.

> the concomitant variates will be called covariates. Measurements on the covariates are made for the purpose of adjusting the measures on the variate.

In the present experiment the pre-test scores served as covariates; post-test scores served as variates or the "variate of primary interest."

ANCOVA disclosed that the systematic variation between experimentals and controls reflected in post-test scores adjusted for covariance was statistically significant for only one scale. The main hypothesis stated in null form was rejected for the Self Acceptance Scale (p less than .05, F-ratio 3,823, d.f. 1 and 98), and was not rejected for the other eleven scales.

The significance level of the F statistics in ANCOVA, is the probability that the overall differences between experimental and controls can be attributed to chance alone.

After adjusted post-test means are established, an analysis of variance determines whether mean differences between experimentals and controls are statistically significant. Results of univariate analysis of variance on the twelve POI variables, as provided by ANCOVA, are given in Table 3. Experimentals made a significantly greater gain than controls at the .05 level on only one experimental variable, the SA or Self Acceptance Scale.

t-tests were made to test for any possible differences within groups. Table 4 presents the t-tests for the experimental subgroups: sex (male and female), curriculum

TABLE 3

Univariate Analysis of POI Posttest Scores Adjusted for Covariance

Variable	Between Mean Squares	Within Mean Squares	Univariate F-Ratio *	P Less Than
TC/TI	12.216	9.535	1.281	.26
I/O	59.994	63.587	.944	.32
SAV	1.695	8.032	.211	.64
EX	21.336	11.190	1.907	.16
FR	7.728	5.377	1.437	.24
S	.249	5.191	.048	.41
SR	.307	4.479	.069	.80
SA	38.051	9.953	3.823*	.05*
NC	.029	3.764	.008	.94
SY	1.474	2.135	.691	.42
A	5.761	7.532	.765	.38
C	1.203	9.987	.120	.74

Each F has 1 and 98 degrees of freedom

* Significant at .05 level

TABLE 4

t-Values for Mean Gain Scores
for Experimental Subgroups

Variable	Sex Male & Female (M-F)	Curriculum Arts-Science & Voc-Tech (A/S-V/T)	Status New & Returning (N-R)
TC/TI	.80	1.00	1.31
I/O	.96	.01	.33
SAV	.51	.29	.31
EX	1.69	.08	.07
FR	1.11	.03	.67
S	.93	.12	.06
SR	.86	.18	.84
SA	.61	.43	.22
NC	.84	1.51	.34
SY	.82	1.17	.51
A	.93	1.68	.30
C	2.13*	.91	.58

* $t \geq 1.96$ is significant at the .05 level
d.f. = 38 - 2 = 36

(arts-science and voc-tech), and status (new and returning). The C Scale, the capacity for intimate contact, which measures the ability to develop intimate relationships with other human beings unencumbered by expectations and/or obligations, was the only scale to show a significant difference at the .05 level for the subgroup sex (2.13), when $/t/ \geq 1.96$ is significant at the .05 level and d.f. = 38 - 2 = 36. The data shows that females made a significantly greater gain than males on the C Scale only. There were no other significant differences between males and females. Therefore, the first sub-hypothesis was rejected for the Capacity Scale and was not rejected for the other eleven scales.

There were no significant differences between the arts-science students and the voc-tech students for the subgroup curriculum. The second null sub-hypothesis was not rejected for any of the scales on the POI.

There were no significant differences between the new and returning students for the subgroup status. The third null sub-hypothesis was not rejected for any of the scales on the POI.

Table 5 presents an analysis of variance for experimental subgroups with more than two levels: residence (home, dormitory or other) and class (4 Human Potential Groups). Residence showed two F values significant at the .05 level, the O/I Scale (3.957) and the A Scale (4.278)

TABLE 5

Analysis of Variance for Experimental Subgroups With More Than Two Levels

Variable	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Prob. < F
Residence (home, dormitory or other)				
TC/TI	10.05	5.025	.298	.748
O/I	535.811	267.906	3.957*	.028
SAV	28.463	14.232	1.290	.288
EX	41.028	20.514	2.109	.134
FR	26.702	13.351	1.327	.278
S	16.600	8.300	.991	.618
SR	5.579	2.790	.344	.716
SA	58.532	29.266	2.003	.148
NC	6.361	3.181	.436	.656
SY	2.296	1.148	.316	.736
A	106.845	53.422	4.278*	.021
C	58.782	29.391	3.016	.060
Each F has 2 + 35 degrees of freedom				
Class (4 Human Potential Groups)				
TC/TI	87.500	29.167	1.937	.141
O/I	298.953	99.651	1.300	.290
SAV	32.821	10.940	.974	.582
EX	21.203	7.068	.667	.581
FR	42.427	14.142	1.429	.250
S	26.924	8.975	1.079	.372
SR	21.604	7.201	.914	.553
SA	145.149	48.383	3.874*	.017
NC	8.170	2.723	.365	.781
SY	2.354	.785	.210	.890
A	6.870	2.290	.145	.932
C	29.674	9.891	.909	.551

* Significant at .05 level

Each F has 3 + 34 degrees of freedom

with each F having 2 and 35 degrees of freedom. I/O or Inner-Other Directed measures whether an individual's reaction is characteristically "self" oriented or "other" oriented. The A or Acceptance Scale measures the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensiveness, denial, and repression of aggression.

The "t" statistic was used to measure, where, by subgroups, significant gain scores existed. These results are presented in Table 6. A highly significant "t" value (.001) was found for the O/I Scale favoring students living in the dormitory over those living in other places. A highly significant "t" value at the .001 level was also found for the A Scale favoring students living in the dormitory over those living in other places, and a significant "t" scale at the .05 level was found for students living in the dormitory over those living at home.

The fourth null sub-hypothesis was rejected for the O/I Scale and the A Scale and was not rejected for the other ten scales.

Class showed one F value significant at the .05 level: the SA Scale (3.874) with each F having 3 and 35 degrees of freedom. The SA or Self-Acceptance Scale measures the ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies. Changes in scores for individual Human Potential groups took the following order: four over three, three over two, two over one with four over one showing a highly significant "t" value at the

TABLE 6

t-Values for Pairs of Means by
Residence for O/I and A Scales of the POI
(Row minus Column)

O/I Scale

Group	Dorm	Other
Home	-.956	1.641
Dorm		6.020***

*** Significant at .001 level, in favor of students living in the dormitory, over students living in other places.

A Scale

Group	Dorm	Other
Home	-2.330*	.019
Dorm		3.876***

* Significant at .05 level, in favor of students living in the dormitory over students living at home.

*** Significant at .001 level, in favor of students living in the dormitory over students living in other places.

TABLE 7

t-Values for Pairs of Means by Class
for the SA Scale of the POI
(Row minus Column)

SA Scale

Group	2	3	4
1	-1.201	-1.550	-5.083***
2		- .566	-1.865
3			-1.268

*** Significant at .001 level, in favor of group four over group one.

.001 level. There is no way to tell why there were differences in the mean gain scores; the procedures and format were the same; the leaders were different. "t" values for Class are presented in Table 7.

The fifth null sub-hypothesis was rejected for the SA Scales and was not rejected for the other eleven scales.

The effects of extraneous factors such as sex, status, curriculum, residence and class were investigated to determine whether better experimental control could be achieved by adjusting for these factors in the analysis.

Based on the evidence, these factors, in general, did not appear to be significant and, therefore, were not entered in the analysis.

On the whole, the results of the present field experiment were inconclusive. An inspection of the mean scores and the adjusted mean scores provided by ANCOVA reveals relatively small differences between pre and post-test gains in treatment group and control group means, with the former showing distinctly more movement in a positive direction on only one experimental variable. All experimental means were higher when adjusted for covariance, but only one significantly so. Few differences were found within groups.

A summarization of these findings is contained in Chapter VI, along with the investigator's conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter VI

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In Chapter I, the problem and purposes of the study were stated. Chapter II contained a description of the evolution of group work and the relevant converging forces from which the human development course has emerged and a review of related research. The design and methodology of the study were outlined in Chapter III, the Human Potential Group procedures were described in Chapter IV, and the findings of the research project were presented in Chapter V. This chapter will summarize and integrate the entire study. A brief outline of the study is provided in the summary followed by a discussion and conclusions drawn from the findings. Finally, this chapter will be concluded by recommendations for further research and for immediate action.

SUMMARY

The problem under investigation in this study was to determine whether individuals move significantly toward self-actualization after attending Human Potential Seminars at a community college.

A review of literature indicated the need for more and better research in group work. It also showed that the growth of the "group movement" has been dramatic and

that research has lagged behind. Many kinds of groups have sprung up, some beneficial, some worthless and some even harmful. Trueblood and McHolland[1] developed the Human Potential group process with the express purpose and goal of assisting persons to gain a more positive self-image. They stated that throughout the entire group process, persons are helped to become more self-determining, self-motivating, self-affirming and empathetic toward other persons. Several studies have indicated that the Human Potential Seminars do have significant positive effects on participants; several other studies have found no significant positive effects. This study was developed to contribute additional results to that body of literature.

Pre-test and post-test scores were collected for 38 experimental subjects and 63 control subjects from Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory. All subjects were students enrolled at Iowa Central Community College during the fall term, 1974-75. Experimental groups consisted of four seminars, and control groups were members of three separate English classes.

A nonrandomized control group design was utilized in this study. Analysis of covariance was used for analysis purposes to compensate for the possibility of nonequivalence on the pre-test between the experimental and control groups.

---

[1] Roy W. Trueblood and James D. McHolland, Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process (Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970).

A series of univariate tests were applied to test the hypothesis: There are no significant differences as a result of participating in a Human Potential Seminar between experimental and control groups as measured by Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory. The independent variable was participation or non-participation in a Human Potential course, Psychology 8:135. Pre-test scores were the covariates or control variables, and post-test scores were the dependent or criterion variables.

In addition to testing for overall significance between groups, analysis of variance and t-tests were made to test for differences within groups. Experimentals and controls were broken down into the following subgroups to test for significant differences: sex (male and female), status (new and returning), curriculum (arts-science and voc-tech), residence (home, dormitory and other), and class (four Human Potential Groups and three English classes).

Statistical analysis of the data obtained from Shostrum's Personal Orientation Inventory revealed the following:

1. Analysis of covariance disclosed that the systematic variation between experimentals and controls reflected in post-test scores adjusted for covariance was statistically significant for only one scale, the SA scale. The hypothesis stated in null form was rejected for the Self Acceptance Scale (p less than .05, F-ratio

3.823, d.f. 1 and 98), and was not rejected for the other eleven scales. Experimental groups' scores as well as control groups' scores moved in a positive direction. However, in general, the increase in experimental group scores was greater than in the control group scores.

2. t-tests revealed little differences within the first three subgroups: sex, curriculum and status. The C Scale was the only scale to show a significant difference at the .05 level for the subgroup sex (2.13) in favor of females, when $/t/ \geq 1.96$ is significant at the .05 level and d.f. = 38 - 2 = 36. The first null sub-hypothesis was rejected for the Capacity Scale and was not rejected for the other eleven scales. There were no significant differences within the subgroups curriculum and status, therefore, the second and third null sub-hypotheses were not rejected for any other of the twelve scales on the POI for either subgroups.

3. Analysis of variance produced two significant F values at the .05 level; 3.957 for the Other/Inner Scale and 4.278 for the Acceptance Scale for the subgroup, Residence; and one significant F value at the .05 level: 3.874 for the Self Acceptance Scale for the subgroup, Class. The null sub-hypotheses were rejected for these three scales and were not rejected for any other in these two subgroups.

4. t-tests revealed two significant differences

in the subgroup Residence and one significant difference in the subgroup Class. A highly significant "t" value (.001) was found for the O/I Scale favoring students living in the dormitory over those students living in other places. A highly significant "t" value at the .001 level was also found for the A Scale favoring students living in the dormitory over those living in other places, and a significant "t" scale at the .05 level was found for students living in the dormitory over those living at home. Class showed a highly significant "t" value at the .001 level favoring group four over group one.

The Human Potential Seminars were not found to have a statistically significant overall positive effect on the self-actualization of the participants. Trueblood and McHolland[1] developed the Human Potential group process with the express purpose and goal of assisting persons to gain a more positive self-image. The significant results on the Self Acceptance Scale, which measures the ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies, showed that the Human Potential Seminars have a specific positive effect on participants.

DISCUSSION

The following factors should be considered in interpreting the findings from this study:

1. The population from which the sample used in

---

[1]Trueblood and McHolland, op. cit.

this study was drawn was the student body at an Iowa community college. It is recognized that students in community colleges may differ from those in other types of colleges and universities. Generalizations from the findings of this study must be made with this caution in mind.

2. The possibility exists that some of the changes found for the experimental groups were temporary. It is also possible that other changes might occur at a later time. A follow-up testing after a period of time was not included as a part of this study.

3. The possibility exists that more positive results might have been obtained if the post-test had been given at the end of the Advanced Human Potential Seminar, an addition of six weeks, instead of limiting the findings to the Basic Human Potential Seminar, which consisted of only twelve weeks.

4. The research variables in this study were all measured by objective, self-report, paper-and-pencil tests. The possibility that there might be some variance between the test scores and actual perceptions and feelings was present in this study, as in all research utilizing such instruments.

5. Another factor that could have affected the results was the relatively small size of the experimental groups (a basic aspect of human development courses). With such small sample sizes, larger differences between group means are required to obtain significant F values.

6. The control group was limited to first semester English classes, which consisted almost entirely of new students. The experimental group consisted of both first and second year students. The maturation differences, if any, may have influenced the results of the study.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings suggest the following:

1. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not live in the present as contrasted with the past or future to any greater degree than those who have not completed the HPS. The time competent person lives primarily in the present with full awareness, contact and full feeling reactivity while the time incompetent person lives primarily in the past, with guilts, regrets and resentments, and/or in the future with idealized goals, plans, expectations, predictions and fears.[1]

2. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College are not guided by internalized principles and motivations in contrast to being motivated by peer groups or other external forces to any greater degree than those who have not completed the HPS. The inner-directed person appears to have incor-

---

[1]E. L. Shostrum, Manual for the Personal Orientation Inventory (San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1963), p. 15-24.

porated a psychic "gyroscope" which is started by parental influences and later on is further influenced by other authority figures. The source of direction for the individual is inner in the sense that he is guided by internal motivations rather than external influences. This source of direction becomes generalized as an inner core of principles and character traits.[1]

3. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have a greater degree of affirmation of the primary values of self-actualizing people than those who have not completed the HPS.

4. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more ability to situationally or existentially react without rigid adherence to principles than those who have not completed the HPS.

5. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more sensitivity or responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings than those who have not completed the HPS.

6. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more freedom to react spontaneously or to be oneself than

---

[1] Ibid.

those who have not completed the HPS.

7. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have a greater degree of affirmation of self because of worth or strength than those who have not completed the HPS.

8. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College have more ability to affirm or accept oneself in spite of weakness or deficiencies than those who have not completed the HPS.

9. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have a more constructive view of the nature of man as contrasted to a pessimistic outlook than those who have not completed the HPS.

10. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more ability to transcend dichotomies or tolerate and constructively use ambiguity than those who have not completed the HPS.

11. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness as opposed to defensiveness than those who have not completed the HPS.

12. Students who complete the Human Potential Seminars at Iowa Central Community College do not have more ability to develop meaningful, contactful, relationships

with other human beings as opposed to one who has difficulty with warm inter-personal relationships than those who have not completed the HPS.

No conclusions could be drawn from the subgroups within the experimental groups.

The findings suggest that Human Potential Seminars can have a significant positive impact on college students' self acceptance. Since Trueblood and McHolland[1] developed the Human Potential group process with the express purpose and goal of assisting persons to gain a more positive self-image, the significant difference between experimental and control scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale indicates that the human development course may be an appropriate and viable strategy for helping students meet their needs for positive self-affirmation.

On the basis of this investigation the researcher could neither support nor disprove the belief that individuals move significantly toward self-actualization after attending Human Potential Seminars. The results of this study reveal a need to re-examine this belief.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

More descriptive and experimental research concerning human development courses and other human development programs is needed. Further research efforts might take the following directions:

---

[1]Trueblood and McHolland, op. cit.

1. The present study should be replicated with groups that are more homogeneous at the outset and with the addition of another testing at the end of the Advanced Human Potential Seminar in six weeks and again as a follow-up in possibly three months. Such a study would indicate whether changes occurring through participation in a human development course persist, are enhanced, or regress over time.

2. Colleges offering multiple human development courses should conduct research to determine whether courses with different emphases have an influence on students' growth on different developmental vectors or whether or not the effects of such courses, if sequential in nature, are cumulative.

3. Research is needed that attempts to determine the effects of the different elements of the human development course. Relevant research questions would be: Do the different elements (self-confrontation exercises, the curriculum, the environment, and the facilitator) have separate effects or are changes caused by interaction between elements? Which elements are most significant for facilitating student development?

4. Further research is needed that takes into account differential changes for individual participants in a human development course. Variables that might be explored are: (a) individuals' initial orientation on control

variables, e.g., initial levels of self-esteem, psychosocial development or interpersonal relations orientation; (b) motivation--why people enter the course; (c) goals--what they hope to gain; (d) degree of participation; and (e) attendance.

5. The use of different types of measuring instruments would provide useful experimental results. Of particular value would be research which measured actual behavioral changes. Also, the logs and other written work of students in human development courses could provide a rich source of data. Content analysis appears to be a valuable technique for determining the nature of students' personal growth in different areas.

6. Studies similar to this one should be undertaken with students in four-year colleges and universities and possibly with graduate students to determine if similar effects are found with these other populations.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRESENT ACTION

The literature in higher education and the personal concerns of college students should not be ignored. The results of this study reveal that a human development course had a significant impact on the community college students' positive self-acceptance. Other studies reviewed here have shown increases in students' level of self-actualization and positive changes in their perceptions of themselves and others after participation in a human development course.

Such findings are important and demonstrate that human development courses are accountable.

At present human development courses are available on a minority of American campuses. There are literally thousands of students whose lives could be positively affected by participation in such an experience. Such courses and other human development programs could be expanded and encouraged. Action could be taken now to make such experiences available to interested students on campuses throughout the country. Such activity should center around training interested counselors and other educators who possess the desirable personal qualities to become skilled human development facilitators. It is also necessary that academic administrators and faculty members recognize the value of human development courses and support their implementation.

Students are not the only members of the academic community with personal growth needs. Administrators, faculty and staff members could benefit by participation in various human development programs. A great variety of human development experiences are possible and should be adapted to meet the needs of all campus constituents. Such efforts hold great promise for further humanizing higher education.

The relatively new phenomenon of group participation, which includes the Human Potential Seminar, may have im-

portant implications for higher education. Educators presently know very little about the specific effects of such participations. This study was one attempt to investigate some of the effects of one group process, the Human Potential Seminar.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

Blank, Leonard, Gloria B. Gottsegen, and Monroe G. Gottsegen eds. Confrontation: Encounters in Self and Interpersonal Awareness. New York: The Macmillon Company, 1971.

Brennecke, John H., and Robert C. Amick. Psychology and Human Experience. Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1974.

Buros, Oscar K., ed. The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook. 2 vols. New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1972.

Campbell, Donald T., and Julian C. Stanley. Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Design for Research. Chicago: Rand McNally, Inc., 1966.

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Less Time, More Options. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971

Collins, Charles C. College Orientation: Education for Relevance. Boston: Holbrook Press, Inc., 1969.

Creamer, D. G., V. Pennington, C. R. Morgan, and J. Wesson. Human Development Instruction for Career Students in the Community College: An Exploratory Study. Dallas: El Centro College, 1972.

Dinkmeyer, Don C., and James J. Muro. Group Counseling: Theory and Practice. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, Publishers, 1971.

Egan, Gerard. Encounter: Group Processes for Interpersonal Growth. Belmont, California: Brooks-Cole Publishing Company, 1970.

Frazier, A., ed. New Insights and the Curriculum. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1963.

Gazda, G. M. Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

Holland, Morris K. Psychology, An Introduction to Human Behavior. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath & Company, 1974.

Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations and Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

Kleeman, Joseph. A Follow-up Study of the Kendall College Human Potential Seminar Model. Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College, 1973.

Leonard, George B. Education and Ecstasy. New York: The Delacorte Press, 1968.

Lindquist, E. F. Design Analysis of Experiments in Psychology and Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1953.

Maslow, A. H. Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

_____. Toward a Psychology of Being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1962.

Maye, Joe B., and James M. Reeves. The Effect of the Human Potential Seminar on the Self-Concept as Measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Muskegon, Illinois: Surrey Community College, 1974.

McHolland, James, and Noel McInnis. Every Student Is a Gifted Student. Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College, 1968.

_____. and Roy Trueblood. Human Potential Seminars, Leaders Manual. Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College Press, 1972.

_____. and Roy W. Trueblood. Human Potential Seminars, Participants Workbook. Evanston, Illinois: Kendall College Press, 1972.

McNemar, Quinn. Psychological Statistics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962.

Mitchell, Philip, Wayne Reid, and Neil Sanders. A Study of the Effectiveness of the Human Potential Seminar. Muskegon, Michigan: Counseling Department, Muskegon Community College, 1972.

O'Banion, Terry, and Alice Thurston, eds. Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

_____. New Directions in Community College Student Personnel Programs. Washington, D. C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1971.

_____, and April O'Connell. The Shared Journey: An Introduction to Encounter. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

_____, Alice Thurston, and James Gulden. Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

Otto, Herbert A. Group Methods to Actualize Human Potential: A Handbook. Beverly Hills, California: Holistic Press, 1970.

_____. Guide to Developing Your Potential. North Hollywood, California: Wilshire Book Co., 1970.

_____, and John Mann. Ways of Growth. New York: The Viking Press, 1968.

Shostrum, E. L. Manual for the Personal Orientation Inventory. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1966.

_____. The Personal Orientation Inventory. San Diego: Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1963.

Teal, Jack. Pre-Post Testing Results for the Development Program - Human Potential Seminars. Peoria, Illinois: Counseling Department, Illinois Central College, 1971.

Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Random House, 1970.

Trueblood, Roy W., and James D. McHolland. Self-Actualization and the Human Potential Group Process. Evanston, Illinois: Counseling Department, Kendall College, 1970.

Vermilye, D. W., ed. The Future in the Making: Current Issues in Higher Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.

Warnath, C. F., ed. New Directions for College Counselors. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.

Warnath, Charles. New Myths and Old Realities: College Counseling in Transition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 1971.

Winer, B. J. Statistical Principles in Experimental Design. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962.

PERIODICALS

Alschuler, A. S. "The Originis and Nature of Psychological Education," Educational Opportunity Forum, 1, No. 4 (1969), 1-8.

Braun, J. R. "Effects of 'Typical Neurotic' and 'After Therapy' Sets on Personal Orientation Inventory Scores," Psychological Reports, 19 (1966), 1282.

Byrd, R. E. "Training in a Non-group," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 7 (1967), 18-27.

Culbert, S. A., J. V. Clark, and H. K. Bobele. "Measures of Change Toward Self-actualization in Two Sensitivity Training Groups," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15 (1968), 53-57.

Dandes, H. M. "Psychological Health and Teaching Effectiveness," Journal of Teacher Education, 17 (1966), 301-306.

Dreyfus, Edward A., and Elva Kremenliev. "Innovative Group Techniques: Handle with Care," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1970), 279-282.

Foulds, Melvin L. "Effects of a Personal Growth Group on a Measure of Self-actualization," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 10 (1970), 33-38.

Foulds, Melvin L. "Measured Changes in Self-actualization as a Result of a Growth Group Experience," Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 8 (1971), 338-341.

Foulds, Melvin L. and James Guinan. "On Becoming a Growth Center," Journal of College Student Personnel, May 1970, pp. 177-81.

Fox, J., R. R. Knapp, and W. B. Michael. "Assessment of Self-actualization of Psychiatric Patients; Validity of the Personal Orientation Inventory," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 28 (1968), 565-569.

Gazda, G. M., and M. J. Larson. "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling," Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1 (1968), 57-137.

Gazda, G. M., and R. W. Peters. "Analysis of Research in Group Procedures," Educational Technology, January 1973, pp. 68-75.

Gibb, L. L. "Home Background and Self-actualization Attainment," Journal of College Student Personnel, 9 (1968), 49-53.

Gordon, Myron, and Norman Liberman. "Group Psychotherapy: Being and Becoming," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1971), 611-618.

Grossack, M. M., T. Armstrong, and G. Lussiev. "Correlates of Self-actualization," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 6 (1966), 87-88.

Guinan, J. G., and Melvin L. Foulds. "Marathon Group: Facilitator of Personal Growth?" Journal of Counseling Psychology, 17 (1970), 145-49.

Ilardi, R. L., and W. T. May. "A Reliability Study of Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory," Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 8 (1968), 68-72.

Klavetter, R. E., and R. E. Mogar. "Stability and Internal Consistency of a Measure of Self-actualization," Psychological Reports, 21 (1967), 422-424.

Knapp, R. R. "Relationship of a Measure of Self-Actualization to Neuroticism and Extraversion," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 29 (1965), 168-172.

LeMay, M. L., and V. J. Damm. "The Personal Orientation Inventory as a Measure of the Self-actualization of Underachievers," Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1 (1968), 110-114.

Lifton, Walter M. "Applying Group Counseling Techniques to Future Social Problem-Solving," Educational Technology, January 1973, pp. 50-52.

Mahler, C. A. "Group Counseling," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (1971), 601-610.

Maslow, Abraham H. "Neurosis as a Failure of Personal Growth," Humanitas, 3 (1967), 153-170.

McHolland, James. Human Potential Project Newsletter, Fall, 1974.

Morgan, Lewis B. "Counseling for Future Shock," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52 (1974), 283-287.

O'Banion, Terry. "Humanizing Education in the Community College," Journal of Higher Education, 42 (1971), 657-68.

_____. "Organizing and Administering Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College," Peabody Journal of Education, 49 (1972), 268-78.

"Putting Yourself Together," Family Health, April 1974, pp. 63-82.

Rowe, Wayne, and Bob B. Winborn. "What People Fear About Group Work: An Analysis of 36 Selected Critical Articles," Educational Technology, January 1973, pp. 53-57.

Shostrum, E. L. "A Test for the Measurement of Self-actualization," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 24 (1965), 207-218.

_____. "Group Therapy: Let the Buyer Beware," Psychology Today, May 1969, pp. 36-40.

Shostrum, E. L., and R. R. Knapp. "The Relationship of a Measure of Self-actualization (POI) to a Measure of Pathology (MMPI) and to Therapeutic Growth," American Journal of Psychotherapy, 20 (1966), 193-202.

Slavson, S. R. "Eclecticism Versus Sectarianism in Group Psychotherapy," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 30 (1970), 3-14.

Stewart, R. "Academic Performance and Components of Self-actualization," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26 (1968), 918.

OTHER

Green, Edith, J. "The Relationship of Self-Actualization to Achievement in Nursing." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1967.

Kleeman, J. "The Kendall College Human Potential Seminar Model and Philosophies of Human Nature." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Kendall College, Evanston, Illinois, 1972.

McHolland, James D. "For All the People: A Futuristic Look at Human Development Instruction" Paper presented at Human Development Workshop in Dallas, June, 1972.

McHolland, James D. "From Stress to the Release of Human Potential" Paper read at the Illinois College Personnel Association, Chicago, Illinois, September 27, 1968.

Meyer, Bruce E. "The Impact of a Human Development Course on College Students' Self-concept, Purpose in Life, and Interpersonal Relations." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, 1975.

Nemecek, Dean F. "A Study of the Self-Actualization and Academic Achievement of College Underachievers." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, 1972.

Varelas, James T. "Effects of the Human Potential Seminar on the Self Concept, Academic Achievement and Social Adjustment of Community College Freshmen." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Albany, New York, State University of New York, 1973.

White, John C. "A Study of Human Potential Laboratory Groups in a Community College Setting: Group Leader Style, Group Composition and Participant Outcomes." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1975.